

- (1) What is the role of fermentation in aerobic organisms?
- (2) How does TPP facilitate  $\alpha$ -keto acid decarboxylation?
- (3) Which dietary sugars (starch, maltose, lactose, sucrose) require hexokinase for entry into glycolysis?
- (4) Identify each of the oxidation-reduction reactions catalyzed by the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex.
- (5) Arsenite is an inhibitor of some enzymes *in vitro*. What is the mechanism of arsenite inhibition?
- (6) Consider the catabolism of glucose in yeast under aerobic conditions. Which enzymes catalyze decarboxylation reactions? What about under anaerobic conditions?
- (7) Which enzymes of the TCA cycle utilize a 'covalent' enzyme intermediate?
- (8) Identify the irreversible reactions of the TCA cycle. Why are these reactions of particular interest?
- (9) What is coordinated regulation and when is it utilized in metabolism?
- (10) Provide an overall reaction for the conversion of:
  - a) glucose to succinate
  - b) pyruvate to  $\text{CO}_2$
  - c) galactose to acetyl-CoA

Answers

- 1- In the absence of oxygen (terminal electron acceptor of respiration), the electron transfer chain and the TCA cycle will stop functioning as NADH (and FADH<sub>2</sub>) accumulates. Fermentation regenerates NAD<sup>+</sup> from NADH allowing glycolysis to continue to function in the absence of oxygen.
- 2- TPP form a 'stabilized' carbanion (ylid form) within the thiazolium ring that attacks the α-keto carbon. The thiazolium ring acts as an 'electron sink' that leads to decarboxylation and resonance stabilization of the resulting carbanion / enol. Protonation leads to product release or transfer to a suitable acceptor.
- 3- Each of the indicated dietary sugars require hexokinase for entry into glycolysis. Only galactose and fructose (in the liver) have routes into glycolysis that do not require hexokinase.
- 4- E1: α-keto decarboxylation of pyruvate to hydroxyethylthiamine AND hydroxyethylthiamine transfer to oxidized lipoyllysine.  
E3: oxidation of reduced lipoyllysine by FAD AND oxidation of FADH<sub>2</sub> by NAD<sup>+</sup>
- 5- Arsenite forms irreversible bidentate adducts with vicinyl sulfhydryls. Enzymes that utilize vicinyl disulfides in their reaction mechanism are inhibited.
- 6- aerobic  

Pyruvate dehydrogenase complex	(pyruvate → acetyl-CoA + CO <sub>2</sub> )
Isocitrate dehydrogenase	(isocitrate → α-ketoglutarate + CO <sub>2</sub> )
α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex	(α-ketoglutarate → succinyl-CoA + CO <sub>2</sub> )

anaerobic  

Pyruvate carboxylase	(pyruvate → acetaldehyde + CO <sub>2</sub> )
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- 7- α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex  
succinyl-CoA synthetase
- 8- Acetyl-CoA + oxaloacetate → citrate (Citrate synthase)  
α-ketoglutarate → succinyl-CoA (α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex)  
and arguably Isocitrate → α-ketoglutarate (isocitrate dehydrogenase)  
These are the reactions that regulate flux through the TCA cycle.
- 9- Coordinated regulation involves pathways that share a common metabolic intermediate. In these cases regulatory mechanism activate one pathway at the same time the alternate pathway is inhibited.
- 10 – a) glucose + 2ADP + 2GDP + 8NAD<sup>+</sup> → succinate + 2ATP + 2GTP + 8NADH + 8H<sup>+</sup> + 6CO<sub>2</sub>  
(2ATP + 2NADH from glycolysis; 2NADH + 2CO<sub>2</sub>; 2GTP + 4NADH + 4CO<sub>2</sub> from TCA)  
b) pyruvate + 1GDP + 4NAD<sup>+</sup> + 1GDP + 1FAD → 3CO<sub>2</sub> + 4NADH + 4H<sup>+</sup> + 1FADH<sub>2</sub> + 1GTP  
c) galactose + 2ADP + 4NAD<sup>+</sup> → 2acetyl-CoA + 2ATP + 2CO<sub>2</sub> + 4NADH + 4H<sup>+</sup>